

## Spin-1 version of Putnam argument

Consider a state  $\Psi$  for a spin-1 system defined by

$$\Psi = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\Psi_1 + \Psi_2) \quad (1)$$

where  $\Psi_1, \Psi_2, \Psi_3$  are  $(S_z)$ -eigenstates  $\{ |S_z = -1\rangle, |S_z = 0\rangle, |S_z = +1\rangle \}$ .

and

$$\Psi_1 = c_1 \Psi_1 + c_2 \Psi_2$$

so  $\Psi_1$  is orthogonal to  $\Psi_3$

and we can write (1) in form

$$\Psi = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(c_1 \Psi_1 + c_2 \Psi_2 + \Psi_3) \quad (2)$$

Now measure  $S_z$  and find result  $S_z = -1$

then from (2) we know the value of  $P_{\Psi_1}(c_1, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}})$

But, according to Putnam

or rather if looking at from (1) for  $\Psi$

we also know the value of  $P_{\Psi_1}$  the incompatible property  $P_{\Psi_1}(c_1, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}})$ ,

whereas my claim is that the weaker claim that we know at that the compatible property  $P_{\Psi_1} + P_{\Psi_2}$  has the value 1

(note that  $P_{\Psi_1} < P_{\Psi_1} + P_{\Psi_2}$ )

$$\text{so } P_{\Psi_1} \Rightarrow P_{\Psi_1} + P_{\Psi_2}$$

and in particular

$$P_{\Psi_1} \Rightarrow P_{\Psi_1} + P_{\Psi_2} \text{ but } P_{\Psi_1} + P_{\Psi_2} \not\Rightarrow P_{\Psi_1}$$



Feynman and the Two-Slit Experiment

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The two-slit experiment has always provided a major focus for debates on the interpretation of quantum mechanics (QM). In brief, the experiment consists in allowing a beam of electrons of well-defined momentum to impinge on a screen which incorporates two parallel slits, and detecting the electrons emerging from the slits on a second screen, equipped for example with a photographic emulsion which will respond to the impact of an electron. The intensity of the beam can be reduced so that on average at a given time only one electron is passing through the screen with device comprising the two screens the one with the two slits and the detector screen. But nevertheless QM predicts that an 'interference' pattern will build up on the detector screen, quite unlike the mere summation of the patterns one would obtain if one or other of the slits were open but not both together. The electrons behave like localized corpuscles in respect of their detection at the second screen but in respect of the interference pattern the 'behaviour' is characteristic of classical wave behaviour, so in this experiment it appears that the 'electrons are displaying



wave-like behaviour in their passage through the slits in the first screen, but particle-like behaviour in respect of their detection at the second screen. But how can an electron behave both like a wave and like a particle? That is the essence of the paradox posed by the two-slit experiment.

new  
form Referring to Fig. 1.  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  are the two slits in the first screen, and  $D_i$  is a small volume element enclosing a piece of emulsion that can record if the electron hits the detector screen at a point located in  $D_i$ .

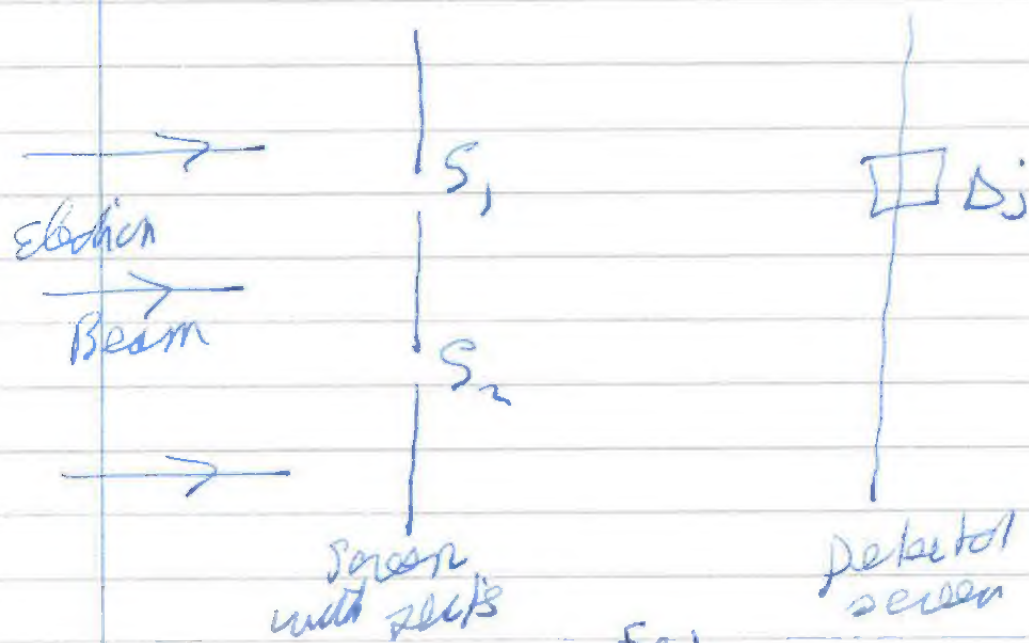


Fig. 1.

Denote by  $A$ , the proposition asserted at the time  $t$  that the electron is detected that the electron had passed through the slit  $A_1$  at the earlier time  $t'$  at which the beam impinges on the first screen and by  $A_2$  the proposition at  $t$  that the electron had passed through  $A_2$  at  $t'$ . Furthermore denote by  $R_i$  the proposition that the electron hits triggers the detector at time  $t$  in cell  $D_i$ .



then we are concerned in explaining  
the two-slit experiment with evaluating.

~~Prob( $R_i$ )~~ the conditional probability  
 $\text{Prob}(R_i | A, \vee A_2)$ .

Let us first see how treating the electron as  
particles a particle 'which has passed through  
one or other slit', leads to the wrong  
sort of pattern at the detection screen.

Let us evaluate  $\text{Prob}(R_i | A, \vee A_2)$  according  
to classical ideas on the meaning of  
conditional probability

$$\text{Prob}(R_i | A, \vee A_2) = \frac{\text{Prob}(R_i \cap (A, \vee A_2))}{\text{Prob}(A, \vee A_2)} \quad (1)$$

$$= \frac{\text{Prob}(R_i \cap A) \vee (R_i \cap A_2)}{\text{Prob}(A, \vee A_2)}$$

where we have used the distributive law  
of classical logic to write

$$R_i \cap (A, \vee A_2) = (R_i \cap A) \vee (R_i \cap A_2) \quad (2)$$

But since  $A, \cap A_2$  is a logical  
contradiction we have

$$\text{Now } \text{Prob}(R_i | A, \vee A_2) = \frac{\text{Prob}(R_i \cap A) \vee (R_i \cap A_2)}{\text{Prob}(R_i \cap A) \vee (R_i \cap A_2)}$$

$$= \frac{\text{Prob}(R_i \cap A) + \text{Prob}(R_i \cap A_2) - \text{Prob}(R_i \cap A, \cap A_2)}{\text{Prob}(R_i \cap A) + \text{Prob}(R_i \cap A_2)}$$

$$= \frac{\text{Prob}(R_i \cap A) + \text{Prob}(R_i \cap A_2)}{\text{Prob}(R_i \cap A) + \text{Prob}(R_i \cap A_2)}$$

$$= \frac{\text{Prob}(R_i | A) \cdot \text{Prob}(A) + \text{Prob}(R_i | A_2) \cdot \text{Prob}(A_2)}{\text{Prob}(R_i | A) \cdot \text{Prob}(A) + \text{Prob}(R_i | A_2) \cdot \text{Prob}(A_2)}$$

since  $A, \cap A_2$  is a logical contradiction

$$= \text{Prob}(R_i | A) \cdot \text{Prob}(A) + \text{Prob}(R_i | A_2) \cdot \text{Prob}(A_2)$$



So, finally

$$\text{Prob}(R_5 | A_1 \text{ \& } A_2)$$

$$= \cancel{\text{Prob}(R_5 | A_1)} \times \frac{\text{Prob}(A_1)}{\text{Prob}(A_1 \text{ \& } A_2)}$$

$$= \text{Prob}(R_5 | A_1) \times \frac{\text{Prob}(A_1)}{\text{Prob}(A_1) + \text{Prob}(A_2)}$$

$$+ \text{Prob}(R_5 | A_2) \times \frac{\text{Prob}(A_2)}{\text{Prob}(A_1) + \text{Prob}(A_2)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \text{Prob}(R_5 | A_1) + \frac{1}{2} \text{Prob}(R_5 | A_2) \quad (3)$$

if we assume a uniform <sup>incident</sup> beam, so  $\text{Prob}(A_1) = \text{Prob}(A_2)$

note  
here

Now (3) is just the equally weighted summation of the patterns we would get if  $S_1$  or  $S_2$  were alone opened and exhibits none of the features of DM interference.

In order to reproduce such interference it would be necessary to assume that  $\text{Prob}(R_5 | A_1)$  for example depended on whether  $S_2$  was opened or closed, but this would admit a mysterious nonlocal action between opening and closing  $S_2$  and what the electron was doing as it went through  $S_1$ . It is the hope of avoiding what Peierls in his (1944) paper to do 'Causal anomalies' that has inspired much of the discussion of the interpretation of the two-slit experiment.

note  
here

The approach of the Copenhagen interpretation to this problem is only to



claim that when the electron is passing through the slits in the first screen, and displaying wave-behaviour it is meaningless to introduce propositional logic  $A \vee A_2$  which expresses a typically particle nature, that the electron goes through one or other slit. So the whole of the above discussion is quite legitimate according to the Copenhagenists because it involves contradiction in a meaningful proposition. The main argument in Reichenbach's (1944) is to suggest that one can regard  $A \vee A_2$  as meaningful in the context of the two-slit experiment, but in order to avoid causal anomalies we must regard  $A \vee A_2$  as neither true nor false, but accorded a third truth value viz. indeterminate. This approach of employing a three-valued logic to interpret the two-slit experiment was taken up enthusiastically by Putnam in his (1957). But in his (1965a) he was quite dismissive: "In Reichenbach's approach --- it is simply assumed that statements about macro-observables have the conventional two truth values while statements about micro-observables may have a third truth value; but this radical dichotomy between macro- and micro-observables is not derived from anything, but simply, grafted into the theory ad hoc". In brief, the three-valued logic approach formalizes but does not explain the phenomenon of interference. In his (1965b) Putnam entitled 'A Philosopher Looks at Quantum Mechanics'



Putnam makes no reference to quantum logic and concludes "no satisfactory interpretation of quantum mechanics exists today"

new  
found

But then in his <sup>1969, 1968</sup> (1968) Putnam took up the idea of a bivalent but non-distributive logic as a resource for removing the paradoxes associated with the interpretation of QM. Technically the idea goes back to Birkhoff and von Neumann, who proved in 1936 that in a certain sense, a non-distributive logic could be read off the mathematics of the Hilbert space formulation of quantum mechanics. To see what is going on we present a brief resume of the non-distributive logic approach, concentrating on those features emphasized by Putnam in his <sup>1969</sup> (1968) and his (1974).

In classical physics the state of a system is identified with a location in phase-space and we can introduce elementary propositions  $P$  of the form  $\mathcal{E}(U)$   $\mathcal{E}(P)$  specifying that the state of the system lies in the subset  $P$  of the phase-space  $\Omega$ . The logical connectives, conjunction, disjunction and negation acting on the elementary propositions now translate into the familiar Boolean operations of intersection, union, and set-theoretic complement under the correspondence associating propositions  $P$  with subsets  $P$ . In QM the ~~state of a~~ system is identified with maximally specified state of a system is identified with a ray or one-dimensional subspace of a Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$ . We can now introduce elementary propositions  $U$  which of the form  $\mathcal{E}(U)$  specifying that



the state of the system lies somewhere in  
 the subspace  $U$  of  $\mathcal{H}$ , and the logical  
 connectives ' $\wedge$ ', ' $\vee$ ' and ' $\neg$ ' are now defined  
 by their translation into the lattice operators  
 operations of meet, join and orthocomplement  
 in the lattice of subspaces of  $\mathcal{H}$ . The  
 resulting 'logic' is easily seen to be  
 non-distributive. But now comes the decisive  
 step. we introduce new elementary propositions  
 of the form  $(\Delta)_Q$  which assert that the  
 observable  $Q$  possesses a value which  
 lies in the <sup>Borel</sup> subset  $\Delta$  of possible values  
 for  $Q$ . We now introduce the idea of  
 a 'real' state or Putnam state as  
 it is described in Redhead (1987) which  
 is to be sharply distinguished from  
 the QM state. ~~The Putnam state is~~  
~~defined as the QM state.~~ The proposition  $(\Delta)_Q$   
 is identified with the proposition  $e'(U)$   
 stating that the Putnam state lies in the  
 subspace  $U$  of  $\mathcal{H}$  which is now defined by  
 the statement that if the QM state were  
conferred to  $U$ , then with probability one the  
result of measuring  $Q$  would be in  $\Delta$ .  
 It is easily checked that  $U = \text{ran } P_Q(\Delta)$   
 where  $P_Q(\Delta)$  is the projection operator associated  
 with the Borel set  $\Delta$  via the projection-  
 valued measure associated <sup>with</sup> the hypermaximal  
 operator that represents  $Q$  in the Hilbert space  
 formulation of QM. The logical connectives acting  
 on the  $(\Delta)_Q$  propositions are now to be  
 understood as translating into the lattice  
 operations on the subspaces  $U$  via the correspondence  
 $(\Delta)_Q \mapsto e'(U)$ .  
 The whole scheme is really quite complicated



and we have tried to summarize the situation in a schematic form in Fig. 2.

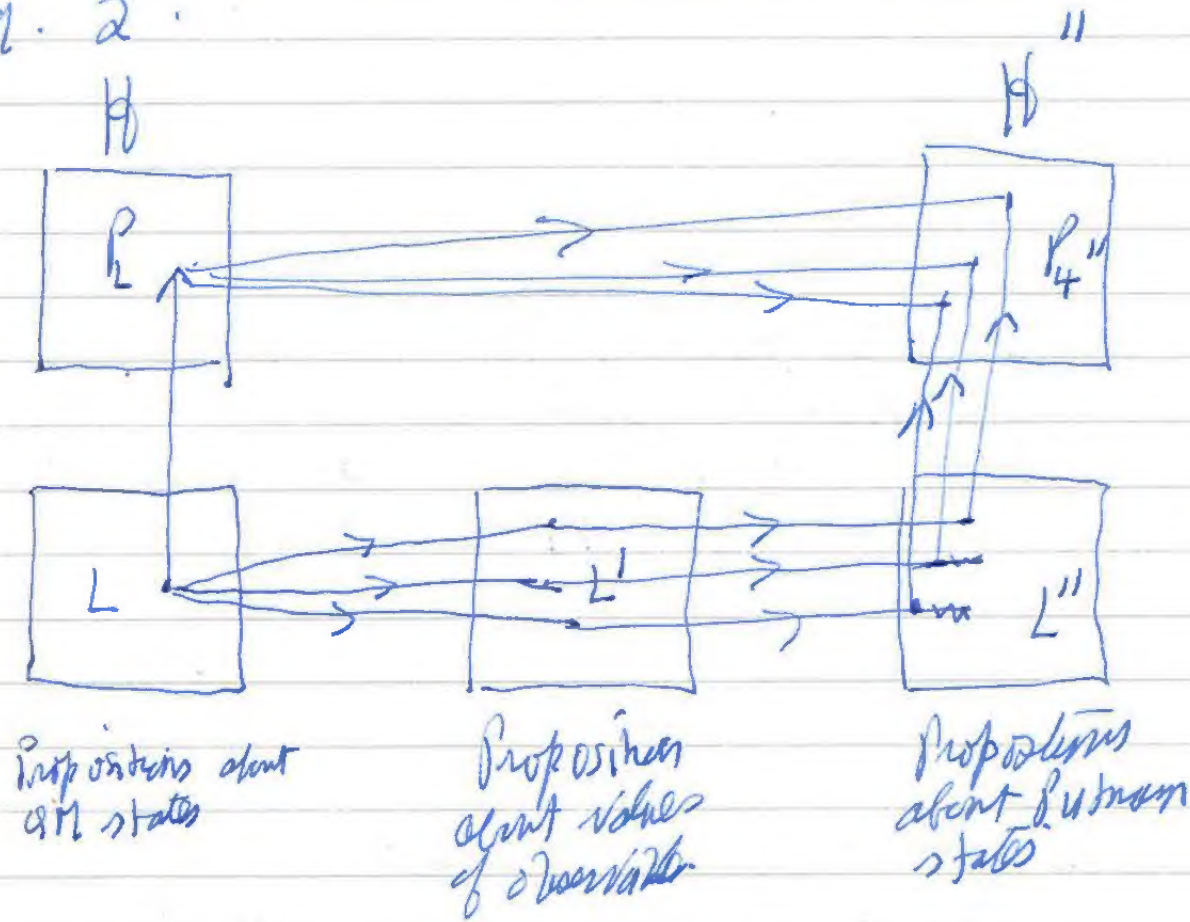


Fig. 2

$L$  denotes a proposition about the specification of the QM state of the form  $e(v)$  as described above.

$L'$  is a proposition of the form  $(\Delta)$  telling us about the values of observables. Each on a realist conception of QM each  $L$ -proposition is associated with a non-denumerable infinity of  $L'$ -propositions. Each  $L'$ -proposition is now associated via the correspondence  $(H) \rightarrow e'(v)$  with an  $L''$ -proposition specifying the location of what we have called the Putnam state.

Each  $L$ -proposition is associated with a subspace of the Hilbert space  $H$ , and may be identified via its range with a unique projection operator  $P_L$  acting on  $H$ . Similarly each  $L''$ -proposition is associated with a



Exercise

\*  $A_i$  ensures that the quantum-mechanical state is associated with the ray  $N$ , whose extension is expected in  $A_i$ .

Exercise

# Let us restrict discussion for the moment to a finite-dimensional Hilbert space, so avoiding problems of observables with a continuous spectrum, then



unique projection operator  $P_L$  acting on a Hilbert space  $H$  to the space of Pythagorean states, which is formally identical with  $H$ . But conceptually,  $H'$  and  $H$  must be sharply distinguished, a one-many map existing between the  $P_L$  and the  $P_L'$  as illustrated in fig. 2.

In order to complete the logical scheme we require the specification of a truth valuation mapping propositions not in  $L$  or  $L'$  onto the two-element Boolean algebra of truth values, 0 and 1.

For  $L$ -propositions, denoting  $\pm(u)$  by  $u$ , we require the following admissibility criterion

$A_1$ :  $Val: \{u\} \rightarrow B_2$  is an admissible valuation iff there is a subalgebra  $N$  such that for any subalgebra  $M$ ,  $Val(m) = 1$  iff  $N \leq M$ .

where  $\leq$  denotes the subspace relation.

For the  $L'$ -propositions the situation is more subtle. For a proper subset  $N$  of  $H$  we would like to refine the admissibility criterion

$A_2$ :  $Val: \{u\} \rightarrow B_2$  is an admissible valuation iff the following conditions are satisfied

1.  $Val(u) = 1$  iff  $Val(2u) = 0$
2.  $Val(n) = 1$ , and  $N \leq M$ , then  $Val(m) = 1$
3. In any orthonormal basis  $\{z_i\}$  of  $H'$ , where  $\{z_i\}$  are the eigenvalues of some maximal observable  $Q$ ,  $Val(z_i) = 1$  for some  $i$  and for some  $j$   $Val(z_j) = 0$ ,  $\forall i \neq j$ .  
Where  $Q$  is a commutative operator for  $H'$



number

II

§ It will also follow that nonmaximal  
observables are assigned unique definite  
values as a result of  $A_2$ . (see  
Folmer (1987) p. 165).

0 Effectively, Putnam is claiming,



The function  $\phi'(x_i)$  is the one-dimensional subspace generated by the vector  $|x_i\rangle$ .

The third condition is the crucial one showing that every maximal ideal has a unique definite value, thus complementing our earlier intuition  $\#$  maximal.

The trouble is that there simply are no  $H_2$ -admissible evaluations for  $\mathcal{L}$  without loss of dimension  $\geq 3$ .

Faced with this situation Putnam proceeds as follows. Given a maximal ideal  $\mathfrak{m}$  in a Hilbert algebra of dimension  $N \geq 3$ . Then Putnam identifies  $\mathfrak{m}$  with a value with the properties  $2, v, v, \dots, v, 2$ . This is not very far from being a  $\pi$ . However, says Putnam, this does not mean that it is a  $\pi$  which is false. In classical logic the disjunction cannot be a  $\pi$  without commitment. We can write  $(\exists i) v_i = 2, v, v, \dots, v, 2$ . Putnam is effectively retaining the  $\pi$  which is not a  $\pi$  and using it to define  $\pi$  which he means by  $(\exists i) \pi_i$ . He, Putnam, justifies it by saying that there is no value which it has. Consider now some other maximal ideal  $\mathfrak{n}$  with members  $\{v_i\}$  distinct from  $\{v_i\}$ . So the associated operators  $\mathfrak{m}$  and  $\mathfrak{n}$  do not commute (and hence are called incompatible algebras). Then  $(\exists i) v_i = 2, v, v, \dots, v, 2$  is also true, but  $\mathfrak{n}$  is also true. Indeed, consider the two algebras

$$S_1: \{v_i\} \wedge (\exists i) v_i$$

$$S_2: \{v_i\} \wedge (\exists i) v_i$$

$S_1$ , according to Putnam, is a  $\pi$ .



is tautologically true. In classical logic  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  are logically equivalent, but not in quantum logic.  $S_2$  indeed is a logical contradiction and this is accepted by Putnam. In expressing contradictions, that although it is of individual's free choice, it is contradictory to assert that they possess determinate values. It is, of course, the failure of the distributive law that he asserts us to deny that  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  are equivalent propositions and hence to 'reinforce' realism and indeterminacy.

In his (1969) Putnam tried to apply these ideas to elucidating the two-slit experiment. He pointed out that the derivation of the empirically incorrect summation result (3) depended on employing the distributive law (2). If (2) was disallowed one would be prevented from getting the wrong result - of course that is a rather limited objective, quite insufficient for showing how to get the right result! But it is ~~was~~ pointed out almost immediately by Garbner in his (1971) that in the particular case in question the distributive law is, in a certain formal sense, actually true. To see what is going on let us identify the propositions  $A_1$ ,  $A_2$  and  $B_1$  with the relevant projection operators. For  $A_1$  this is  $P_{\psi_1}$  the projector onto the state  $|\psi_1\rangle$  which is the time-evolution at time  $t$  of the state which would arise at time  $t'$  if the slit  $A_1$  alone were open. Similarly,  $A_2$  is associated with the projector  $P_{\psi_2}$ , where  $|\psi_2\rangle$  is the time-evolution at time  $t$  of the state which would arise



at time  $t'$  if the slit  $S_2$  alone were open.  
Finally  $P_i$  is associated with  
 $P_i = \int dP(x)$ , where  $P(x)$  generates

the projection-valued measure associated  
with the position operator  $X$ .

Gardner then pointed out that

$$\left. \begin{aligned} P_i \wedge P_{4i} &= 0 \\ P_i \wedge P_{4i} &= 0 \\ P_i(P_{4i} \vee P_{4i}) &= 0 \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (4)$$

where  $0$  denotes the null-projector.

So the RHS and LHS of Eq. (3) come out  
to be trivially equal, each side being  
the null-projector. So each of the ~~equations~~  
in (4) represents a logical contradiction, each  
of the equations represents a logical  
contradiction!

Essentially what Gardner was pointing out  
was that states picked out by  $P_i$  are  
never in the linear span of  $P_{4i}$  and  $P_{4i}$ .

(A mathematically rigorous proof of this  
assert for the two-slit experiment was provided  
by Gillies and Pearson in their (1981)).

Faced with this situation Friedman  
and Putnam gave a quite different analysis  
of the two-slit experiment and its connection  
with quantum logic in their (1978).

But this 1978 paper cannot really  
be understood without taking account  
of Putnam the <sup>general</sup> theory of quantum mechanics  
in quantum mechanics changed during the  
1970s, in particular his rejection of the



that for many simultaneous values  
 for incompatible observables would be  
 impossible since it would correspond to  
 showing a logical contradiction. Indeed  
 in 1981 Putnam published a crucial  
 paper called 'Certain Notions as  
 the Chances' in which he expressed  
 his argument for showing that  
 the ~~core~~ ~~idea~~ ~~that~~ it was not  
 contradictory to show the two such  
 simultaneous values. We shall analyze  
 the content of this paper in a study  
~~moment~~ but for the moment let us  
 see how the ~~explanation~~ ~~the~~ ~~context~~  
 appears to motivate the 1975 approach.  
 The fact that incompatible propositions are  
 logically contradictory corresponds, as we  
 have seen, to the fact that 'the most  
 4th propositions corresponding to the associated  
 Putnam state is the ~~real~~-projected'.  
 This arises because we are using a  
 lattice structure (LT) version of quantum  
 logic in which the ~~logical~~ ~~connections~~ are  
 interpreted in terms of the lattice operations  
 which are defined for all elements in the  
 (projection) lattice. But already in this  
 (1967) Kochen and Specker had implied  
 a partial - Boolean - structure, ~~version~~ ~~of~~  
 quantum logic in which the ~~primary~~  
~~connections~~ are restricted to compatible  
 pairs of projectors giving rise to an  
~~inner~~ ~~Boolean~~ ~~subalgebra~~ of its  
 full non-Boolean projection lattice of  
 the Hilbert space. The 1975 version  
 of quantum logic is exactly suited to



future

1. By previous purchase of land, the  
land is purchased of a private person  
or person for the state, but the  
state is not a party to the purchase  
to a purchase made by a private  
person or person for the state to make.



What I mean by in mind, the question  
 -local contractions which he had  
 I mean, identified with the possibility  
 of simultaneously having the same  
 incompatible properties, and so.  
 From the formula in the PBT which  
 of the logic. But the new axis is  
 given in forming a standard  
 probability in terms of a joint probability  
 in the form of the expansion of the  
 incompatible properties. It is not P, or  
 is by single intervals, by a set  
 of mutually exclusive probabilities, but  
 to be involved in terms of a  
 transition probability understood in its  
 previous way. We begin with some  
 terminology conventions. We shall use  
 the symbol  $P$  for a property to denote  
 unambiguously the property operator  $P$   
 (1) The Boolean  $P$  associated with the  
 property  $P$  is the subset of  
 the state space which is a carrier of  
 $P$ . (2) The probability  $[P]$  is the  
 $[P]$  under the state  $\omega$  is the  
 probability: the state  $\omega$  is in  
 the range of  $P$ . It is noted, if  
 associated with the state  $\omega$  is  
 the property called  $P$  is  
 associated with the state  $\omega$ , then  
 (3) The probability:  $[P] \in \mathbb{R}$ .  
 Note that  $P$  is a function of  $\omega$  and  
 is a function of  $P$  and  $\omega$ .

FUNC:  $f(\omega) = f(P)$   
 for any Boolean function  $f$  of the algebra.



Notes

# (The projection postulate)

Question

has made a presumption to



The paper is entitled "The System P"  
should be a good first attempt.  
I will use the computer that  
P147, for an arbitrary AM state 14,  
then show that it is a mixed state  
P147

11/14/11

With the computer in mind as you  
again try to understand the  
transition probability  $P_{147}(F|P)$  as  
a transition probability. We understood this  
quantity as the probability that the system  
F is true given that the initial state  
is 14, not that a particular  
measurement has established the system  
is in state 14 - subsequent project P.  
According to standard ideas in the theory  
of measurement, the AM state given in  
the experiment is P147 and P147.

$$P_{147}(F|P) = P_{147}(F|P_{147}) \\ = P_{P_{147}}(F) \quad (5)$$

But this analysis for measurement  
measurements cannot be applied  
as it leads to the two-fold confusion,  
also. We have to consider  
 $P_{147}(H_i | P_1 + P_2)$  where  
we have spread  $P_{147}$  in  $P_1$  and  $P_{147}$  in  
or at our first relation, but the  
important point to note, but is that  
 $P_1 + P_2$  is a two-dimensional projector  
(i.e. it is a two-dimensional).



part 2

only

\* In fact what has been found here is  
just the so-called Lewis law for  
entailment. The proposed postulate for  
non-representational measurements -  $\frac{2}{3}$  For detailed  
reaction to the Freddman-Putnam  
paradox and its results *inter-via* the  
epistemic framework of the  
two-out experiment see Hellman  
(1981), Bub (1982) and Davis (1982).  
In this paper we concentrate on  
a different aspect of the discussion  
problem, viz. the relation with  
the argument in Putnam (1981).

Substitutivity of naturally quantified  
propositions in conditionalization is of  
course not generally a truth-preserving  
move. This is particularly obvious if  
we understand conditionals *vis-à-vis* as  
conditional with a probabilistic counterpart  
so  $\text{Pr}(A|B) = P$  is analyzed as  
 $B \rightarrow (\text{Pr}(A) = P)$ . Since any two  
true propositions are naturally quantified,  
we cannot expect substitution to preserve  
the truth-value of the conditional. But if  
the material conditional is  
preserved from one background proposition  
to another, the laws of replacement,  
hence, substitution is permissible. The question  
of when substitution is allowed when the natural  
quantification of the antecedents in the conditional is only  
possible for quantum-mechanically and background propositions which  
cannot be compared with each other. The latter may be  
regarded as propositions.





In fact we find that the following  
assumptions are for an  $amplitude$   
distribution, and it is  $improbable$   
to find a  $normal$   $amplitude$  in  
fact, but an only it is  $improbable$   
on all days of a  $normal$   $amplitude$   
about  $10^{-10}$  or  $10^{-11}$ . This is  
an  $improbable$   $amplitude$   $amplitude$   $amplitude$   
about a  $normal$   $amplitude$   $amplitude$   $amplitude$   
about  $10^{-10}$  or  $10^{-11}$ .

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about  $10^{-10}$  or  $10^{-11}$ . This is  
an  $improbable$   $amplitude$   $amplitude$   $amplitude$   
about a  $normal$   $amplitude$   $amplitude$   $amplitude$   
about  $10^{-10}$  or  $10^{-11}$ .

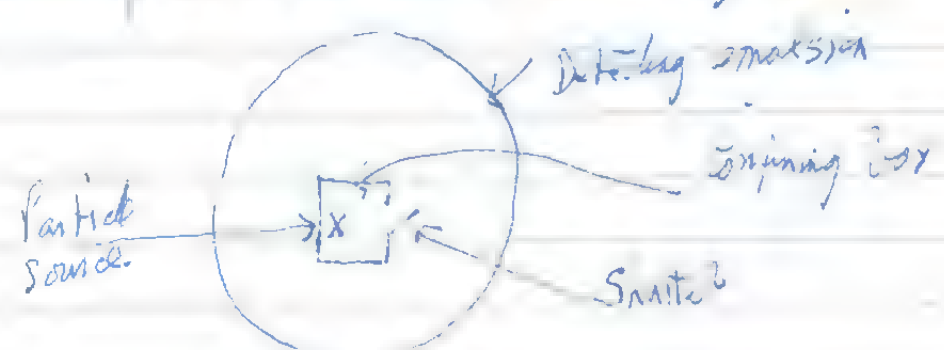


Figure 3.



sketch

notes

later we will indicate what happens  
when <sup>up</sup> during ~~test~~ the state of the  
particle and the photographic emulsion, as  
shown in figure.

At the time  $t$  at which the particle reaches the detector. After the shutter has been opened and closed, the LM state for the particle can be expressed as

$$|\Psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|\Psi_{in}\rangle + |\Psi_{out}\rangle) \quad (3)$$

where  $|\Psi_{in}\rangle$  is a state confined to the interior of the box and  $|\Psi_{out}\rangle$  is a state confined to the exterior of the box, and we assume for the sake of simplicity that the shutter is kept open for just such a length of time that the probability of the particle escaping from the box is  $1/2$ .

Putnam himself insists that  $|\Psi\rangle$  in (3) is interpreted as the full state of the appropriate to the particle and the photographic emulsion. <sup>the proper to</sup> But he keeps things simple and let  $|\Psi\rangle$  describe just the particle — nothing in what follows is in the slightest way affected by this simplification.

Suppose we divide the whole of space into discrete cells  $\Delta_i$  and before projection (measurement) with their cells as  $\Delta_i$  <sup>part of</sup>  $\Delta_i$  is inside the box and  $\Delta_i$  to  $\Delta_i$  are outside the box.

Then we have

$$|\Psi_{out}\rangle = \left( \sum_i |\Delta_i^{out}\rangle \right) |\Psi\rangle \quad (4)$$

$$|\Psi_{in}\rangle = \left( \sum_i |\Delta_i^{in}\rangle \right) |\Psi\rangle \quad (5)$$

Since the summation in (4) is over the cells outside the box, and the summation in (5) is over the cells



At the first it is important to note that the child is not a simple organism. It is a complex organism, and its development is a process of continuous change. The child is not a passive recipient of the environment, but an active participant in its own development. The child's development is a process of continuous change, and the child is not a passive recipient of the environment, but an active participant in its own development. The child's development is a process of continuous change, and the child is not a passive recipient of the environment, but an active participant in its own development. The child's development is a process of continuous change, and the child is not a passive recipient of the environment, but an active participant in its own development.

inside the box and we again use our  
 current convention that all only  
 specified normalizations.  
 We also note that

$$\sum_i p_i^{in} + \sum_i p_i^{out} = 1 \quad (10)$$

and  $p_i^{out} \Rightarrow \sum_i p_i^{out} \quad (11)$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_i p_i^{in} + \sum_i p_i^{out} \quad (12)$$

Since all the  $p_i^{in}$  and  $p_i^{out}$  are  
 compatible (2) is just the formal  
 statement that if the particle is in  
 the box inside the box then it is  
 outside the box (13) is the  
 converse, that if the particle is  
 outside the box then it is  
 inside the box. (14) states more or  
 less the same thing.

Now suppose at some arbitrary time  
 $t$  we measure  $p_i^{out}$ , then this measures  
 a small region of the ensemble and find  
 the value 1 (i.e. a mark of the division  
 appears on DA at time  $t$ ). Then we  
 know the probability  $p_i^{out}$  (i.e. at time  $t$  the  
 particle was inside in DA). But from  
 our assumptions that we are making, however.

$p_i^{out}$  we also know that the particle is  
 outside the box and hence from (14, 15, 16)  
 Part 1, when we cannot not estimate  
 from the probability  $p_i^{out}$  we can estimate  
 the probability  $p_i^{in}$  which  
 is the same as the probability  $p_i^{in}$ .  
 Conclusion of the argument is that during the



much on the emission in DA, we then  
 have the same of two incompatible theories.  
 But this last one is correct.

From (12), identifying  $i$  with  $A$  we have  
 $|A\rangle \Rightarrow \sum_i |i\rangle$ , so, in words,  
 if the particle is somewhere spatially outside  
 the box, then it is somewhere outside the  
 box! But  $|A\rangle$  commutes with  $\sum_i |i\rangle$ , so  
 there is no question of proving incompatibility  
 propositions in order to prove that the  
 particle is in DA and it is somewhere  
 outside the box.

Notice also, that  $|A\rangle \Rightarrow \sum_i |i\rangle$   
 so if we know that the state of the  
 particle was  $|A\rangle$  then we would  
 know that it was outside the box.  
 But the implication does not go the  
 other way. Essentially Bohm's

reasoning leads down to having  
 $|A\rangle \Rightarrow |A\rangle$ , apparently on the  
 mistaken assumption that we can  
 write  $|A\rangle = (\sum_i |i\rangle) |A\rangle$

But at this point we can use  
 Bohm's argument provided we  
 suppose the question - logical invariant

$$|A\rangle \Rightarrow \left( \sum_i |i\rangle |A\rangle \right) \leftrightarrow \sum_i |i\rangle \quad (14)$$

which is a simple rewording of  
 the simple invariant  $\delta$  simplified in  
 the Friedman-Peierls paper.  
 (14) says then, more that we have the

QM state is  $|4\rangle$ , then we can infer  
the maximal number of the two  
compatible propositions associated with  
 $(\frac{1}{2}P_{in})|4\rangle$  and  $\frac{1}{2}P_{out}$ . For this

problem as compatible mutual questions  
is just the familiar classical version  
noted, but the constraint is of  
course only valid question - especially  
if we consider  $P_{in}$  even not in  
the same domain (subalgebra) as  
 $(\frac{1}{2}P_{out})|4\rangle$  and  $\frac{1}{2}P_{out}$ . This framing

$P_{in}$  does allow us to prove  $(\frac{1}{2}P_{out})|4\rangle$   
as Subman claim.

There is certainly no hint in Subman  
(1991) that he has the need for  
question logic in proving at his  
conclusion about proving something  
other for incompatible propositions.  
I submit that without the need  
the argument of the 1991 paper  
cannot be sustained.

So to include the motivation of  
the more than 20A value of question  
logic in the Subman - Johnson paper  
cannot be understood, especially  
if Subman now to believe, but only  
in the sense of being a question logic.  
But there is nothing  
necessary about this, indeed a  
plethora of ways in which the  
of the quantum problem is manipulated  
in our discussion.



Footnotes

See back of pages 13 and 15.

1.

2.

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